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PERCEIVED SOURCES OF INFLUENCE UPON OCCUPATIONAL AND
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BY- DRABICK, LAWRENCE W.
NORTH CAROLINA UNIV., RALEIGH, N.C. STATE UNIV.
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INFLUENCES WHICH HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS PERCEIVE AS AFFECTING THEIR OCCUPATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS WERE INVESTIGATED. GROUP-ADMINISTERED INTERVIEW SCHEDULES WERE COMPLETED BY 1,068 SENIORS IN 12 HIGH SCHOOLS BASICALLY ATTENDED BY WHITE STUDENTS AND 11 HIGH SCHOOLS PREDOMINANTLY ATTENDED BY NEGRO STUDENTS. DIFFERENCES IN PERCEPTIONS WERE CATEGORIZED BY RACE, SEX, INTELLIGENCE, AND RESIDENCE. VARIABLES INCLUDED SOURCES OF INFLUENCE UPON OCCUPATIONAL OR EDUCATIONAL DECISIONS, PARTICULARLY THE ATTITUDE OF THE MOTHER, ATTITUDE OF THE FATHER, AND INFLUENCE OF THE HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION. THOUGH MOST STUDENTS PERCEIVED OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE AS THEIR OWN, PARENTS WERE THE MOST IMPORTANT EXTERNAL SOURCE OF INFLUENCE, ESPECIALLY AMONG THOSE OF LOWER INTELLIGENCE. THE MOST FREQUENTLY MENTIONED EXTRA-FAMILIAL SOURCE OF INFLUENCE UPON OCCUPATIONAL DECISIONS WAS THE TEACHER. NEGROES WERE INFLUENCED MORE BY THE MOTHER, AS WERE FEMALES OF BOTH RACES. RESIDENTIAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN RURAL AND URBAN ENVIRONMENTS WERE SLIGHT. HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION WAS PERCEIVED AS HAVING AN IMPORTANT EFFECT IN OCCUPATIONAL DECISIONS WITH THE DEGREE OF INFLUENCE VARYING AMONG THE CATEGORIES. STUDENTS ALSO PERCEIVED EDUCATIONAL DECISIONS TO BE THEIR OWN WITH THE MOST FREQUENTLY MENTIONED EXTERNAL INFLUENCE BEING THE MOTHER. DIFFERENCES IN SOURCES OF INFLUENCE OF EDUCATIONAL DECISIONS WERE FOUND IN SEX, RACE, INTELLIGENCE, AND RESIDENCE CATEGORIES. (JM)

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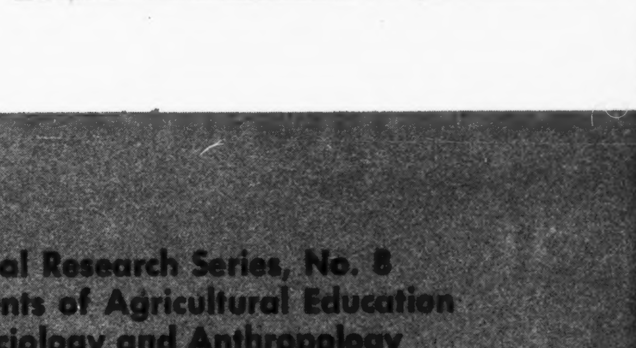

LAWRENCE W. DRABICK

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R. L. Lovvorn, Director of Research
Agricultural Experiment Station
North Carolina State University, Raleigh
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PERCEIVED SOURCES OF INFLUENCE UPON OCCUPATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS .

by

Lawrence W, Drabick

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PERCEIVED SOURCES OF INFLUENCE UPON OCCUPATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

The expanding literature on occupational and educational aspirations of youth in the United States has established without reservation an association between numerous categorical variables and youthful aspirations.[1]

An alternative, and largely subsequent, point of view has been that such categorical associations are not necessarily as meaningful as causal influences. This viewpoint has taken the form of endeavors to determine interactive relationships which may be effective of occupational and educational decisions made by adolescents.[2] In _passim_, conclusions have been that members of the family, specifically the parents, exert a direct effect upon aspirations through their expectations and their expressed desires for attainment by their children; that mothers are perceived by children as being more concerned and exercising a greater influence than fathers upon both occupational and educational aspirations; that members of the peer group exert an influence upon the aspirations of youth, which may be differentially expressed as the aspiring youth occupies variant positions within the social structure of the peer group; and that reciprocated friendships among peers are a pervasive influence in aspirational decision-making.

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[1] As illustrations, see Christiansen, John R., John W. Payne, and Kenneth J. Brown, "Church Participation and College Desires of Rural Youth in Utah," _Rural Sociology,_ 28 (June 1963) 176-185. Coombs, Robert H., and Vernon Davies, "Social Class, Scholastic Aspiration, and Academic Achievement," _The Pacific Sociological Review_, 8 (Fall 1965) 96-100. Haller, Archie O., and William H. Sewell, "Farm Residence and Levels of Educational and Occupational Aspiration," _American Journal of Sociology_, 62 (January 1957) 407-411. Middleton, Russell, and Charles M. Grigg, "Rural-Urban Differences in Aspirations," _Rural Sociology_, 24 (December 1959) 347-354. Sewell, William H., Archie O. Haller and Murray A. Straus, "Social Status and Educational and Occupational Aspirations," _American Sociological Review_, 22 (February 1957) 67-73. Stewart, Lawrence H., "Relationship of Socioeconomic Status to Children's Occupational Attitudes and Interests," _The Journal of Genetic Psychology_, 95 (September 1959) 111-136.

[2] Examples are: Alexander, C. Norman, and Ernest Q. Campbell, "Peer Influences on Adolescent Educational Aspirations and Attainments," _American Sociological Review_, 29 (August 1964) 568-575. Burchinal, Lee G., "Differences in Educational and Occupational Aspirations of Farm, Small-Town, and City Boys," _Rural Sociology_, 26 (June 1961) 107-121. McDill, Edward L., and James Coleman, "Family and Peer Influences in College Plans of High School Students," _Sociology of Education_, 38 (Winter 1965) 112-126. Simpson, Richard L., "Parental Influence, Anticipatory Socialization, and Social Mobility," _American Sociological Review_, 27 (August 1962) 517-522. Webster, Staten W., "Some Correlates of Reported Academically Supportive Behaviors of Negro Mothers Toward Their Children," _Journal of Negro Education_, 34 (Spring 1965) 114-120.

These findings, while in some degree divergent and to some extent inconclusive, are sufficient to cause curiosity about the effects of interactive variables upon youthful aspirations. More specifically, as illustrated by the Burchinal and Webster references, they raise a question concerning the extent to which the aspirant's perception of influence is important in his decisions.

This paper addresses itself to an investigation of the sources which high school seniors perceive as influential in their occupational and educational aspirations. It further examines the possibility that those perceptions are influenced by categorical origins of the aspirants.

The working hypothesis is that various sources of influence will be perceived by the respondents as affective of their occupational and educational aspirations. The hypotheses of test are that those perceptions will differ as the respondents are categorized by race, sex, intelligence and residence. Separate hypotheses were tested for the following dependent variables: (1) source of influence upon occupational decision, (2) mother's attitude toward occupational decision, (3) father's attitude toward occupational decision, (4) influence of high school education upon occupational decision, (5) source of influence upon educational decision, (6) mother's attitude toward educational decision, (7) father's attitude toward educational decision, and (8) influence of high school education upon educational decision. In each instance, the hypothesis was tested with reference to the respondent's expectation rather than his aspiration.[3/]

The sample upon which the data are based consisted of all senior pupils present on the day of interview at 23 North Carolina high schools offering a comprehensive curriculum. Twelve of these schools basically were attended by white students, while 11 were predominantly attended by Negro students. Interviewing was conducted in the late spring in the belief that almost without exception respondents would become bona fide graduates. Location of the schools varied from open country to small cities. A total of 1,068 group-administered schedules were completed. Somewhat fewer than that number were usable.

The data consist in large part of nominal measurements. They have been analyzed by customary chi-square procedures. Presentations will be made in terms of percentages of the N representing respondent

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[3/] Kuvlesky, William P., and Robert C. Bealer, "A Clarification of the Concept 'Occupational Choice'," Rural Sociology, 31 (September 1966) 265-276.

categories in order that readers may gain insight into the sources and effects of various influences upon the occupational and educational expectations of the respondents. In each case, the appropriate chi-square values and probability levels will be indicated.

Two distinct sets of analyses will be presented. The first will deal with occupational expectations; the second, with those regarding education.

INFLUENCES UPON OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

Each respondent was requested to indicate the occupation in which he expected to engage upon the completion of his education. A deliberate ambiguity was introduced into the question in that some students would be responding with an occupation embarked upon with a high school education while some would be looking toward employment dependent upon advanced education. Further, the implication was that the occupation cited would not necessarily be a permanent one, nor even representative of the field in which the respondent would spend the majority of his economically productive life, although this would more likely be the case for those anticipating a college education. In short, the respondent was considered to be replying to the question with the name of that occupation in which he anticipated he would be initially employed.

Subsequently, each respondent was requested to indicate, from a list provided, what he believed to have been the major influence upon his occupational decision; what he considered his mother's and, separately, father's attitudes to be toward that decision; and what influence he believed his high school education to have had. The analytical implication is that the respondent was free to exercise some discretion concerning the occupation in which he would be employed and that his choice in some part was a reflection of influences operating upon him. The purpose of the analysis was to determine the nature and relative effect of those influences.

Source of Influence Upon Expected Occupational Decision

Each student was requested to indicate what he believed to have been the major source of influence upon his decision to participate in the occupation which he expected to attain upon completion of his education. To facilitate response, as well as to provide a uniformity of response conducive to data analysis, the following list of sources of influence was provided in the schedule: mother, father, sister, brother, other relative, friend, teacher, other, and own decision.

Inclusion of the last category turned out to be a tactical error. Its presence relieved the student of the necessity to determine from whence the influence upon his occupational decision had come and, as indicated in Table 1, resort was made to it by a majority of students. The alternative hypothesis would be that students really do make this decision without regard to socializing and educational features of their environment, an assumption difficult to accept.

The general conclusions to be drawn from this table seem to be that the students had internalized the American norm of self-determination as revealed by their belief that their decision literally was their own; that the mother is the major outside-of-self source of influence; that teachers exert the next single greatest external influence, followed by friends; and that parents, combined, are a major external source of influence.

It is logical to assume that characteristics associated with various categories into which the respondents could be placed would

Table 1. Perceived Source of Influence upon Decision to Enter Expected Occupation

Source	Number of students perceiving (N=972)	Per cent of students perceiving
Mother	79	8.1
Father	48	4.9
Sister	24	2.5
Brother	26	2.7
Other relative	42	4.3
Friend	50	5.1
Teacher	60	6.2
Other	31	3.2
Own decision	612	63.0

reveal differences of opinion concerning the source of influence upon the occupational decision. For example, it has been shown in other studies that sex is associated with decisions concerning the type of occupation the student expects to enter; it might be presumed that sex also would be associated with the source of influence upon the decision concerning the occupation one expected to have. Consequently, hypotheses of association between the race, sex, intelligence, and residence of the respondents and their perceptions of occupational decision influence were posited and tested.

Race and the Perceived Source of Influence upon the Occupational Decision

White and Negro students did perceive differences in the source of influence upon their occupational decisions, Table 2. The major differences were that a greater proportion of Negro students perceived an influence by their mothers, their teachers, and themselves; while a smaller proportion considered as influential their fathers, friends, and others. Remaining differences seem of little consequence. The differences in perceived influence were significant beyond the .02 level by chi-square analysis.

Table 2. Perceived Source of Influence upon Decision to Enter Expected Occupation, Comparison by Race

	Students perceiving			
	White (N=567)		Negro (N=405)	
Source	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Mother	37	6.5	42	10.4
Father	34	6.0	14	3.5
Sister	15	2.6	9	2.2
Brother	16	2.8	10	2.5
Other relative	26	4.6	16	3.9
Friend	38	6.7	12	3.0
Teacher	33	5.8	27	6.7
Other	23	4.1	8	2.0
Own decision	345	60.8	267	65.9

Investigation was made of the effect upon the significance of the findings of eliminating or combining some of the response categories. Elimination of the category "own decision" resulted in a chi-square value significant beyond the .02 level. All combinations, such as combining the categories of mother and father while leaving the remainder of categories as they were, resulted in chi-square values which were not significant. The conclusion must be that the significant difference in response between white and Negro respondents is a factor of the combination of all categories other than "own decision" and not a consequence of effective difference between any limited number of categories.

Sex and the Perceived Source of Influence Upon the Occupational Decision

Major differences in the perceived source of influence upon the occupational decision existed between males and females in the sample, Table 3. A strong sex-linked association, probably related to perceived role similarities, was noted in response concerning the influence of members of the nuclear family. Males tended to consider their fathers and brothers as greater sources of influence than were their mothers and sisters. The situation was exactly the opposite for females. In addition, females less frequently considered a friend as a source of influence than did males, were somewhat more prone to consider the decision their own, and were considerably more apt to consider a relative to have been influential. The differences were significant beyond the .001 level by chi-square analysis.

Elimination of the "own decision" category did not affect the probability level of the chi-square value. Manipulation of the other categories did not reduce the value of chi-square below the .05 level until most of the categories had been collapsed. In other words, the differences in perceived source of influence upon occupational expectation were so widely scattered among the response categories for males and females that many of the categories contributed significantly to the chi-square value.

Table 3. Perceived Source of Influence upon Decision to Enter Expected Occupation, Comparison by Sex

	Students perceiving			
	Male (N=426)		Female (N=546)	
Source	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Mother	19	4.5	60	11.0
Father	36	8.4	12	2.2
Sister	7	1.6	17	3.1
Brother	25	5.9	1	0.2
Other relative	11	2.6	31	5.7
Friend	31	7.3	19	3.5
Teacher	27	6.3	33	6.0
Other	10	2.3	21	3.8
Own decision	260	61.0	352	64.5

Intelligence and the Perceived Source of Influence upon the Occupational Decision

The intelligence of the respondent, as obtained from records of the school of attendance, was related to the perceived sources of influence upon the occupational decision, as shown in Table 4. Use of three categories of intelligence (low, less than 90; medium,90-109; high, 110 and above) tends to obscure the relationship. But it is evident by observation that respondents of low intelligence tended to be much more dependent upon parents as sources of occupational influence than were respondents of medium and high intelligence. This was particularly true with relation to the influence of the mother. Likewise, sources of influence outside the family--such as friend, teacher, and other--were less frequently given by those of low intelligence. The differencesin distribution of response were significant beyond the .02 level.

Table 4. Perceived Source of Influence upon Decision to Enter Expected Occupation, Comparison by Intelligence

	Students perceiving					
	Low Intelligence (N=306)		Medium Intelligence (N=413)		High Intelligence (N=130)	
Source	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Mother	36	11.8	21	5.1	9	6.9
Father	21	6.9	13	3.1	7	5.4
Sister	9	2.9	13	3.1	1	0.8
Brother	8	2.6	11	2.7	4	3.1
Other relative	9	2.9	21	5.1	4	3.1
Friend	12	3.9	27	6.5	8	6.2
Teacher	13	4.2	36	8.7	7	5.4
Other	5	1.6	14	3.3	6	4.6
Own decision	193	63.1	257	62.2	84	64.6

Recombinations of the influence sources in various combinations of nuclear family members as opposed to persons outside the family had little effect upon the association between intelligence and perceived source of influence upon occupational decision. The general trend was for the statistical significance of the difference to be intensified as the comparison became more definitely one of family and nonfamily. However, differences in perceived source were so widely scattered across the intelligence categories that each influence source appeared to exert some influence upon the statistical relationship. Elimination of the category of "own decision" from the computation slightly increased the chi-square value and significance level.

Comparisons were also made of differences in perceived source of influence across the various combinations of the intelligence factor, i.e., low intelligence respondents compared to those of high intelligence, low to medium, and medium to high. With only one exception, the low to high intelligence comparison with own decision removed and sources of influence combined into family and nonfamily, all statistically significant differences in distribution of perceived influence were limited to the comparison of respondents of low and medium intelligence. Furthermore, each comparison between those respondent categories was significant, regardless of grouping of influence sources, beyond the .001 level. It is quite obvious where the differences in response lay.

Residence and the Perceived Source of Influence upon the Occupational Decision

The categories of town, village, rural nonfarm, and farm were used in an effort to ascertain whether residence was associated with the perceived source of influence upon the occupational decision, Table 5. While some minor variations in percentages of respondents perceiving a given source as influential were discernable, they did not appear as trends. Examination of the data did not allow conclusions concerning propensities of any one residence group, other than for the individual differences noted (as that markedly more village residents perceived the teacher as an influence than did respondents from any other residence category). The chi-square value was not significant, with the probability greater than the .90 level of rejection.

Table 5. Perceived Source of Influence upon Decision to Enter Expected Occupation, Comparison by Residence

	Students perceiving							
	Town (N=191)		Village (N=154)		Rural nonfarm (N=294)		Farm (N=321)	
Source	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Mother	17	8.9	11	7.1	28	9.5	22	6.9
Father	12	6.3	7	4.6	16	5.4	13	4.0
Sister	4	2.1	2	1.3	7	2.4	10	3.1
Brother	5	2.6	5	3.3	8	2.7	8	2.5
Other relative	3	1.6	9	5.8	16	5.4	14	4.4
Friend	10	5.2	6	3.9	15	5.1	18	5.6
Teacher	14	7.3	14	9.1	13	4.4	19	5.9
Other	4	2.1	6	3.9	11	3.7	10	3.1
Own decision	122	63.9	94	61.0	180	61.2	207	64.5

Recombination of the influence sources had no effect upon the chi-square value. Neither did comparisons of the various residence categories one with another. Finally, a comparison of residence categories pitting the various combinations of urban versus small town and/or rural categories likewise resulted in nonsignificant chi-square values. In other words, as applied to these data, there were no relationships between residence and perceived source of influence upon occupational decision.

Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupational Decision

Investigation was made of the extent to which the respondent perceived his mother's attitude to be consistent with his occupational decision. The findings indicate that these respondents believed their mothers to be favorably disposed, Table 6, in that essentially none of the respondents believed their mothers to be opposed to their choice, and that a small percentage believed their mothers would have preferred a different choice. However, there was an expression of perceived apathy in that the largest per cent of response was to the category of "willing to accept," which denotes something less than gushing enthusiasm. Approximately a third of the respondents believed their mothers strongly to agree with their choice of occupation.

Table 6. Perception of Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

Mother's attitude	Students perceiving Number (N=966)	Per cent
Strongly agrees	345	35.71
Willing to accept	545	56.42
Doesn't care (one way or another)	33	3.42
Likes something else	40	4.14
Opposed to choice	3	0.31

Analysis of differences in the mother's perceived attitude toward the occupational choice using race, sex, intelligence, and residence as control factors was made of the data. The results are presented below. In the analysis, some of the attitudinal categories were collapsed. "Opposed to choice" and "likes something else" were combined as a category of disfavor. "Willing to accept" and "doesn't care" were combined as a category of lack of concern. The category of "strongly agrees" was retained as a category of favor. All significance levels to which reference is made in the following sections were derived from the threefold classification of mother's attitude. The tables are presented with the fivefold classification to increase understanding of the disposition of response.

Race and Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

A racial classification of respondents did not influence the distribution of response concerning mother's attitude toward occupational decision. About a third of the respondents perceived their mothers as in strong agreement with their decisions, Table 7. Differences in the response to the categories of "willing to accept" and "doesn't care" were almost completely abolished when these categories were combined to represent lack of concern. Few of the respondents believed their mothers to favor another occupation and fewer yet perceived them as actively opposed to their decisions. The chi-square value was not significant.

Table 7. Perception of Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupation, Comparison by Race

	Students perceiving			
	White (N=579)		Negro (N=386)	
Mother's attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	209	36.10	136	35.23
Willing to accept	316	54.58	228	59.07
Doesn't care	29	5.01	4	1.04
Likes something else	23	3.97	17	4.40
Opposed to choice	2	0.35	1	0.26

Sex and Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

Females tended to perceive their mothers' attitudes to be consistent with their occupational decisions to a greater degree than did males, Table 8. The per cent of female response consistently was less than that of males in all but the category of strongly agrees. The chi-square value was significant beyond the .01 level.

Table 8. Perception of Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupation, Comparison by Sex

	Students perceiving			
	Male (N=427)		Female (N=539)	
Mother's attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	131	30.68	214	39.70
Willing to accept	255	59.72	290	53.80
Doesn't care	17	3.98	16	2.97
Likes something else	22	5.15	18	3.34
Opposed to choice	2	0.47	1	0.19

Intelligence and Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

Some differences in perceived attitude of mother toward occupational decisions were observed when the respondents were classified by intelligence, Table 9. There was little difference in the extent to which mother's opinion was perceived as strongly in agreement. But respondents of lower intelligence were less apt to perceive their mothersas unconcerned and more apt to believe they would have preferred a different choice. The chi-square value was significant at the .05 level.

Table 9. Perception of Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupation, Comparison by Intelligence

	Students perceiving					
	Low IQ (N=303)		Med. IQ(N=419)		High IQ (N=131)	
Mother's attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	108	35.64	156	37.23	47	35.88
Willing to accept	168	55.45	231	55.13	77	58.78
Doesn't care	6	1.98	21	5.01	5	3.82
Likes something else	19	6.27	11	2.63	2	1.53
Opposed to choice	2	0.66	0	0.00	0	0.00

The source of the intelligence difference was sought by making comparisons of the various intelligence categories with one another. Comparisons of respondents of low and high intelligence resulted in a chi-square value significant beyond the .02 level. Differences were limited to the categories noting little concern and active opposition and reflected the differences in response to those categories noted above. Comparison of the respondents of low and medium intelligence resulted in a chi-square value significant beyond the .05 level and was a consequence of the same differences in response noted above. Comparison of respondents of medium and high intelligence did not result in a significant chi-square value.

Residence and Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

A few differences in per cent of response were noted when classification of respondents was made by residence, Table 10. For example, town respondents disproportionately perceived their mothers strongly to agree with their decisionswhen compared to the village, rural nonfarm, and farm categories. Likewise, village respondents were more apt to believe their mothers as willing to accept their decisions,a condition which continued when the categories were combined to obtain an indication of unconcern. Similar differences may be noted by examination of the table, but the chi-square value was not significant, although it did approach the .05 level.

Table 10. Perception of Mother's Attitude toward Expected Occupation, Comparison by Residence

Mother's Attitude	Students perceiving							
	Town (N=184)		Village (N=154)		Rural nonfarm (N=295)		Farm (N=322)	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agrees	77	41.85	49	31.82	107	36.27	108	33.54
Willing to accept	94	51.09	101	65.58	160	54.24	183	56.83
Doesn't care	6	3.26	1	0.65	14	4.75	12	3.74
Likes something else	5	2.72	3	1.95	14	4.75	18	5.59
Opposed to choice	2	1.09	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.31

Analysis also was made of response based upon twofold classifications of residence. Each category was compared with each other. In no case did the chi-square value attain the level of significance (.05).

Father's Attitude toward Occupational Decision

Respondents were requested to indicate what they believed to be their fathers' attitudes toward the occupations in which they expected to engage following the completion of their education. Categories of response were the same as those used to classify the attitudes of mothers in response to the same question. The findings are shown in Table 11.

Table 11. Perception of Father's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

Father's attitude	Students perceiving (N=896) Number	 Per cent
Strongly agrees	282	31.47
Willing to accept	505	56.36
Doesn't care (one way or other)	69	7.70
Likes something else	32	3.57
Opposed to choice	8	0.89

Very few students perceived their fathers as opposed to their occupational decisions, either as expressed opposition or as favoring another occupation. A considerable proportion of the respondents, not quite a third, believed their fathers to be strongly in agreement with their choices. By far the majority considered their fathers to be acquiescent, a condition which does not necessarily connote agreement.

The response was analyzed on the basis of characteristics of the respondents. As with the case of response indicating the mother's attitude, analysis was conducted with categories constructed of combinations of the gross response. The result is three categories which nominally have been designated as agreement (strongly agrees), unconcern (willing to accept and doesn't care), and opposition (likes something else and opposed to choice). Analysis was conducted by chi-square, using .05 as the level of rejection. All comment in the following sections is based upon these conditions.

Race and Father's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

White and Negro respondents differed in the extent to which they perceived their fathers as in strong agreement with their occupational choices, Table 12. A greater proportion of the former considered their fathers to support their decisions while a greater proportion of the latter thought their fathers to be lukewarm or unconcerned about their choices. The chi-square value was not statistically significant. There was little difference in the extent to which the respondent groups perceived their fathers in disagreement with their occupational expectations.

Table 12. Perception of Father's Attitude toward Expected Occupation, Comparison by Race

	Students perceiving			
	White (N=543)		Negro (N=352)	
Father's attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	183	33.70	99	28.13
Willing to accept	291	53.59	213	60.51
Doesn't care	46	8.47	23	6.54
Likes something else	18	3.31	14	3.98
Opposed to choice	5	0.92	3	0.85

Sex and Father's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

Females were less apt than males to perceive their fathers as in agreement with their occupational choices, were somewhat more prone to believe their fathers as unconcerned, and slightly more convinced that their fathers disagreed with their choices, Table 13. The differences were not significant by chi-square analysis, but are suggestive.

Table 13. Perception of Father's Attitude toward Expected Occupation, Comparison by Sex

	Students perceiving			
	Males (N=397)		Females (N=499)	
Father's attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	132	33.25	150	30.06
Willing to accept	218	54.91	287	57.52
Doesn't care	31	7.81	38	7.62
Likes something else	12	3.02	20	4.01
Opposed to choice	4	1.01	4	0.80

Intelligence and Father's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

Some associations between the intelligence of the respondent and his perception of his father's attitude toward his expected occupation were evident, Table 14. There was a direct correlation between intelligence categories and the proportion of respondents perceiving their fathersas in strong agreement with their choices. There likewise was a pronounced tendency for the students of lesser intelligence to believe their fathers to be in opposition to their choices. The chi-square value was significant beyond the .01 level.

Table 14. Perception of Father's Attitude toward Expected Occupation, Comparison by Intelligence

	Students perceiving					
	Low IQ (N=272)		Medium IQ (N=388)		High IQ (N=129)	
Father's Attitude	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agrees	80	29.41	128	32.99	45	34.88
Willing to accept	155	56.99	217	55.93	72	55.81
Doesn't care	14	5.15	32	8.25	11	8.53
Likes something else	18	6.62	9	2.32	1	0.78
Opposed to choice	5	1.84	2	0.52	0	0.00

In an effort to determine the source of differential perception of father's attitude toward occupational choice as expressed among the three intelligence categories, comparisons of response were made using twofold intelligence classifications in their three possible combinations. By means of this procedure, it was established that all of the significant difference in response was a result of different perception by the respondents of lower intelligence. The comparison of response between students of medium and high intelligence was not statistically significant. The comparison between students of low and medium intelligence, as well as that between students of low and high intelligence, revealed a statistically significant difference. In each case, the difference basically was that the students of low intelligence were more prone to see their fathers as opposed to their choices.

Residence and Father's Attitude toward Expected Occupation

Differential residence did produce some difference in response concerning fathers' attitudes toward expected occupations, as shown in Table 15. Respondents from farms in lesser proportions perceived their fathers as strongly supporting their decisions, while village respondents were most prone to perceive strong support. Rural nonfarm respondents provided the greatest proportion of response indicating direct opposition from their fathers; although the total was very small, it was noticeably larger than that of other response categories. However, differences in response generally were minimal and the chi-square value was not significant.

Table 15. Perception of Father's Attitude toward Expected Occupation, Comparison by Residence

	Students perceiving							
	Town (N=164)		Village (N=133)		Rural nonfarm (N=277)		Farm (N=313)	
Father's attitude	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agrees	56	34.15	47	35.34	87	31.41	89	28.43
Willing to accept	88	53.66	76	57.14	153	55.23	184	58.79
Doesn't care	15	9.15	8	6.02	20	7.22	26	8.31
Likes something else	4	2.44	2	1.50	12	4.35	13	4.15
Opposed to choice	1	0.61	0	0.00	5	1.81	1	0.32

To carry the investigation of residential associations further, analysis was made of each pair of residential categories (i.e., town vs.

village residents). No one of these comparisons resulted in a statistically significant chi-square value.

Influence of High School Education on Expected Occupation

Respondents were requested to indicate the extent to which they believed their high school education to have been affective of their occupational decisions. The rationale of the question was that some aspects of the educational process at the high school level might have, as a consequence of deliberate intent or accidental intervention, in some way affected the decision which the student had made about his post-graduate occupation. Without in any way posing how this might have come about, but leaving the interpretation to the respondent, we requested him to reply to the question by responding to one of the following response categories: a great deal, some, very little, none. An analysis of the total response is presented in Table 16.

Table 16. Influence of High School Education on Expected Occupation

Influence	Students perceiving (N=999)	
	Number	Per cent
Great deal	488	48.85
Some	348	34.83
Very little	100	10.01
None	63	6.31

In contrast to the rugged individualism with which the students had approached the question concerning the source of influence upon their occupational decisions, by far the majority of respondents believed that the school had had a "great deal" or "some" influence upon their choices, with the greatest amount of response concentrated in the former category. A minority, even though a substantial one, believed their education to have had "very little" or "no" influence upon that choice.

Analysis of the response was made using race, sex, intelligence, and residence as control factors. The results of that analysis are presented in the succeeding sections.

Race and the Influence of High School Education on Expected Occupation

White and Negro students assigned different emphases to the influence of their education upon their occupational decisions, as shown in Table 17. A much greater per cent of Negro students believed their education to have had a great deal of influence upon that decision than was the case with white students. Similarly, smaller percentages of Negro students responded in each of the successively less influential categories than was true of whites. About half as many thought the school had exercised very little influence upon their choices and considerably fewer than half as many thought it had imparted no influence. The chi-square value was significant beyond the .001 level.

Table 17. Influence of High School Education on Expected Occupation, Comparison by Race

	Students perceiving			
	White (N=588)		Negro (N=410)	
Influence	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Great deal	244	41.50	243	59.27
Some	221	37.59	127	30.98
Very little	74	12.59	26	6.34
None	49	8.33	14	3.41

Sex and the Influence of High School Education upon Expected Occupation

Male and female respondents perceived different effects of their high school education upon their occupational choices, Table 18. A greater proportion of females believed their education to have had a great deal of effect upon their choices than was the case with males. Females were represented in smaller percentages than were males in each of the successively less influential categories. The differences were significant beyond the .02 level as computed by chi-square.

Table 18. Influence of High School Education on Expected Occupation, Comparison by Sex

	Students perceiving			
	Male (N=440)		Female (N=559)	
Influence	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Great deal	193	43.86	295	52.77
Some	160	36.36	188	33.63
Very little	51	11.59	49	8.77
None	36	8.18	27	4.83

Intelligence and the Influence of High School Education upon Expected Occupation

The perceived influence of the high school education upon occupational decision declined as the intelligence classification of the respondent increased, Table 19. Those students in the highest intelligence category were less inclined to believe their education to have had a great deal, or even some, influence upon their choices and more prone to believe it to have had little or no influence. Those of the lowest intelligence category showed essentially the opposite characteristics. The chi-square value was not significant, although it approached that applicable to the .05 level of rejection. One may conclude that strong suggestive trends are evident.

Table 19. Influence of High School Education on Expected Occupation, Comparison by Intelligence

	Students perceiving					
	Low IQ (N=313)		Medium IQ (N=427)		High IQ (N=134)	
Influence	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Great deal	160	51.11	206	48.24	59	44.03
Some	112	35.78	153	35.83	45	33.58
Very little	23	7.35	48	11.24	15	11.19
None	18	5.75	20	4.68	15	11.19

The analysis of the relationship between intelligence and effect of education upon occupational choice was continued by comparison of the response between the various intelligence classifications. None of these comparisons resulted in a significant chi-square value although those for the comparisons between response of low and high intelligence students and between medium and high intelligence students were near the .05 level of rejection, the latter particularly so. It appears that the responses of the students of higher intelligence were largely responsible for the observed significance of difference.

Residence and the Influence of High School Education upon Expected Occupation

Segregation of response by residence categories revealed some differences which may be observed in Table 20. Such differences appear to be random and, while individually interesting, do not reveal any pattern. The chi-square value was not significant.

Table 20. Influence of High School Education on Expected Occupation, Comparison by Residence

	Students perceiving							
	Town (N=192)		Village (N=157)		Rural nonfarm (N=303)		Farm (N=334)	
Influence	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Great deal	104	54.17	71	45.22	150	49.50	158	47.31
Some	58	30.21	54	34.39	101	33.33	127	38.02
Very little	17	8.85	18	11.46	40	13.20	25	7.49
None	13	6.77	14	8.92	12	3.96	24	7.19

Analysis was made of response using the various two-way classifications of residence category. Each resulted in a nonsignificant chi-square value with the exception of the comparison between rural nonfarm and farm respondents. In the latter instance the chi-square value was significant beyond the .05 level, with the difference in response scattered in a rather puzzling way. Nonfarm students were found in greater than expected frequencies in the categories of "great deal" and "very little" influence, with the response of farm students correspondingly less than anticipated in these categories.

Conclusions

The often cited emphasis upon the "youth culture" in the United States may have received subsidiary validation by the finding of this study that almost two-thirds of the high school seniors in the sample believed themselves responsible for their occupational decision. Certainly, this conclusion on their part is evidence of a self-confidence which most likely did not characterize the generation which produced their parents. It likely also is a resultant of the rampant prosperity and general well-being of the times during which these respondents were socialized.

That parents remain a meaningful source of influence upon adolescents is evident in the fact that parents, combined, were the largest external source of influence upon the occupational decisionscited by these respondents. Consistent with the results of some other research, notably that of Burchinal to which reference is made in the introduction to this paper, mothers were given almost twice as often as fathers as a source of influence. Siblings were considered a minor source of influence; if taken separately, they constituted the least referred-to sources; their combined influence was considered to be greater than any source other than parents or a teacher. Other relatives were referred to almost as frequently as the father as a source of influence, and more often than either a sister or a brother.

Extra-familial sources of influence upon the occupational decision were headed by teachers, a source given by about 16 per cent of the respondents. The influence of the peer group was not as great as might have been expected in a youth-oriented culture wherein it is seriously proposed that adolescents are alienated from adult values. Nonetheless, both teachers and friends were given as sources of influence more frequently than any single other source except mothers.

Introduction of race, sex, intelligence and residence into the analysis of the source of influence upon the occupational decision resulted in some instructive findings, a number of which seem supportive of social science theories. A greater proportion of Negro than white students gave their mothers as a source of influence, consistent with the observed tendency for matriarchal organization of the Negro family. The difference in proportion of students presenting the father as the source of influence was likewise supportive of this tendency, and was even more pronounced.

Perhaps as a consequence of their new-found determination to be masters of their own fates, a greater proportion of Negro than of white students believed their occupational choicesto have been their own. An alternative explanation would be that the Negro student believed himself to have fewer competent sources of information to which he could turn.

Sex linked differences in source of occupational influence by family members strongly bears out the contention of role preparation by adoption of role models which has been suggested by sociologists. Females perceived their mothers and sisters as sources of influence more so than they did their fathers and brothers. Males assigned the same disproportionate influence to their fathers and brothers. Females gave evidence of a possibly greater reliance upon family advisors in that they more often cited a relative as an influential than did males. But females did not live up to the dependency function frequently posited for their roles. A greater proportion than males believed the choices to have been their own.

The intelligence function seemed to operate in such a way as to make the student of lower intelligence more dependent for advice and influence upon family members. Students of low intelligence more frequently cited their mothers and fathers, separately or combined, as effective in their decisionsthan did students of medium or high intelligence. The combined per cent of response indicating influence of all family members also was greater for students of lower intelligence, although this factor was dependent largely upon the tendency of these students to give their parents as the influence source. Apparently a broader acquaintance with reality and an enhanced belief in their own competency enabled students in the upper two intelligence classifications to broaden the scope of their contacts. It should be pointed out, however, that there was essentially no relationship between intelligence and extent to which students perceived themselves as responsible for their occupational decisions.

Theories which have postulated a greater family solidarity among farm families, as well as those which have stipulated a greater homogeneity of occupational influence upon the rural adolescent, were not borne out by the results of this study. Respondents in the four residence categories differentiating between rural and urban environments gave essentially the same proportions of response in each of the influence categories. Open country residents did differ from those in village and town in the extent to which they perceived a teacher as having been influential. Consistent with a tenuous theory of division of labor which might propose the schools as the basis for entry into the occupational structure, and in keeping with the fact that vocational guidance functions are more highly developed in the urban schools, respondents in the village and urban environments were more likely to cite a teacher as a source of influence.

Investigation of the perception these respondents had of their mothers' attitudes toward their occupational decisions revealed that about a third believed their mothers to be strongly in agreement with their choices. While there is no objective device by means of which to indicate whether this is a satisfactory situation, it should be pointed out that over half considered their mothers as no more than willing to accept their decisions. Again in keeping with the "youth culture" theme, only a limited proportion of respondents believed their mothers would have preferred different choices and practically none perceived their mothers as outright opposed.

Race had no effect upon the distribution of response in regards to mother's attitude toward occupational decision. There is evidence here of a similarity in cultural milieu affective of perceptions of students, qua adolescents, and without regard to racial distinctions.

Sex, on the other hand, was associated with differential perception of the mother's attitude toward occupational choice. Again lending confirmation to a closer association between mother-daughter, a better rapport, a more closely entwined sense of identification and mutual expectation, females were much more inclined to perceive their mothers as strongly agreeing with their occupational choices than were males. Consistent with this orientation males more frequently believed their mothers to desire other occupations for them or to be in opposition to their decisions. It should be pointed out, however, that the proportion of the male sample giving these responses was relatively small.

Students of lower intelligence were more likely to believe their mothers to desire other occupations than that which they had selected, or to actively oppose their entries into the selected occupation It is of more than passing interest to speculate why this should be so. For example, did mothers have a better assessment of the reality of their children's competencies and recognize that they were aspiring too highly? Or, on the other hand, were the students better able to assess their abilities and to realistically seek employment where ambitious and loving mothers considered them to be wasting their talents?

The idea of rural family solidarity takes another beating with comparison of mothers' attitudes toward the respondents' occupational decisions. A much greater proportion of town than of farm youth believed their mothers to be strongly in support of their decisions. Similarly, the greatest proportion of respondents expressing a belief that their mothers preferred some other occupational choice was found among the farm youth. These findings did not constitute a linear progression across the continuum of rural-urban residence, but are nonetheless highly suggestive in their failure to support long-accepted ideas about the superiority of family structure in rural areas. Of course, if one interprets this condition as one wherein the rural youth aspires in too limited a fashion, thereby exciting the disfavor of his mother, some of the sting is removed from the finding.

The general distribution of perceived fathers' attitudes toward the students' occupational choices was very much like that of the mothers'. Again, about a third of the respondents believed they received strong support from their fathers and something over half believed their fathers to be willing to accept their decisions. However, a lesser proportion of respondents believed their fathers' attitudes to be strongly in agreement than had been the case with their mothers', and more thought of their fathers as being apathetic.

It is part of the theory of family sociology in this nation that the father is not as contributive a part of the Negro family as he is of the white family. As a consequence of this, it is presumed that the Negro father does not play as important a function in decision-making. Some indication that this is true insofar as it relates to agreement with occupational decisions of adolescents may be found in the fact that a greater proportion of white students believed their fathers to be strongly in agreement with their occupational choices, while Negro fathers were expressed more frequently as being apathetic. There was, however, little difference in the extent to which opposition was perceived as the father's attitude.

In continuance of the sex association which has been revealed consistently by the findings of this study, males more frequently perceived their fathers as strongly supporting their occupational decisions than did females. Suggestive as this finding was, it must be noted that the differences were not great.

Intelligence bore the same relationship to perceived father's attitude toward occupational decision as it had to mother's attitude. Students of lesser intellectual ability were less apt to perceive their fathers as in strong agreement with their choices and were more likely to believe them to like something else or to oppose their choices. The differences were of a major nature and showed the more intelligent student to be more in tune with his father's expectations. The association was much more obvious than had been the case with reference to mother's attitude, while in the same direction, and may have something to say about differential tolerance of fathers and mothers with reference to failure of their children to live up to the expectations they have of them and the aspirations they have for them.

Residential differences in perception of father's attitude were slight but there was an indication that farm fathers were least in agreement with the choices made by their children. The tendency for farm students to be in less accord with their parents concerning their occupational choice provides a base upon which to speculate concerning the so-called "Lipset theory" of occupational mobility according to which the rural adolescent has less opportunity to be aware of the variety of potential occupations or to have acquaintance with persons from varied occupations. The net result of this condition is that the rural youth is more restricted in his occupational aspirations. Let us suppose that the consolidated school has overcome this limitation for the rural youth and that he is now better informed about the potential for employment than are his parents. Might not this cause him to make choices with which they would not be in agreement? While this study in no way provides answers to the question, it does seem that the findings allow the question to be raised.

Finally, the effect of the high school education upon occupational choice was investigated. Almost half of the respondents believed their education to have been a major factor in determining their occupational decisions, while only about 16 per cent believed it to have had little or no influence. Even this limited percentage expressing doubt about the influence of their schooling as a factor in their occupational decisions is a matter of concern. Why were they impervious? Can this be deemed a "fault" of the school? What are the personality characteristics of these students which made them immune to the effects of the school on this decision? Are there factors of home and family life which made them impervious? Has the school "failed" with these students? Opportunity for speculation as well as further research resides in these questions.

Negro students were much more prone to perceive their education to have been influential of their occupational decisions than were white students. One might propose that this was a consequence of the instability of the Negro home, certainly a canard but a documented one, and the consequent need of the Negro student to turn to some source outside his home for competent and authoritative advice and influence in an important decision area. Or it may indicate a rupture between the younger and older generations of Negroes, similar to that proposed for farm families, wherein the older generation is so out of tune with current conditions as to be an inadequate source of advice.

Females indicated a greater belief than males that their schooling had been of consequence in their occupational decisions. This would be consistent with the observed tendency for females to be more amenable to the educational process than males, and to believe education, per se, to be both a meaningful and valuable experience. It could also be a reflection upon the fact that the North Carolina high school is more apt to provide training, such as typing and other business-oriented activities, which can lead directly to the type of occupation into which females move following graduation than those which have an immediate applicability for males. In many of these schools the only vocational training for males is in agriculture, a field which constantly provides employment for a decreasing number of individuals. And one which does not have the same appeal today as it has in the past.

An unusual outcome is presented in analysis of the relationship between intelligence and effect of high school education upon occupational choice. The more intelligent the student the less apt he was to believe school to have been a major influence in his decision and the more likely he was to believe it had played no part. This finding is so out of step with what seems logical expectation that it necessitates a searching glance at the quality of the education provided. One may infer that the more intelligent student perceives an inadequacy in his high school which prevents it from preparing him for other than the usual and customary occupational pursuits. Such a condition might not phase the student of lesser intelligence. Indeed, it might appeal to him because it did not force him out of the comfortable mold of tradition. If some such explanation is not satisfactory, one is forced to turn to explanations which posit the more intelligent student as a chronic discontent. This, of course, may be the case. And would not necessarily be bad. The value of the discontented in advancing knowledge is well known.

Town students in greater number than those of the other residence categories perceived their high school education as having been a major factor in their occupational decisions. This finding is consistent with the previously expressed belief that only the larger schools, customarily located in the towns but more recently found in the rural areas due to consolidation, provide an education of sufficient extensity as to meet the varied needs of persons approaching participation in the varied occupational structure which characterizes the United States today.

INFLUENCES UPON EDUCATIONAL DECISION

Respondents in the study were requested to indicate their future educational plans. Only those able to name the institution of higher education at which they would be enrolled in the fall were considered to be bona fide candidates for additional education. However, whatever his intentions concerning further education, each respondent had made a decision: he either would or would not attend college.

We were concerned to know the influences which the student perceived as affective of his decision. Each respondent was requested to provide information about the source of influence which he considered most affective of his decision. He also was requested to respond more specifically with information about the attitude of his mother and of his father toward his educational decision; and he was asked to indicate the extent to which he believed his high school education had affected his decision.

Analysis of the data derived from these questions concerning further educational intentions is presented in the succeeding sections.

Sources of Influence upon Educational Decision

As had been the case with reference to the occupational decision, the majority, about two-thirds, of the respondents believed their educational decisions to have been their own, Table 21. This may have been true in the short run in that no source of influence may have insisted or otherwise made it mandatory that they attend. It seems, however, that such a point of view overlooks the subtle influences of socialization, particularly within the family, and is a simplification of the source of the student's decision.

Table 21. Source of Influence upon Educational Decision

Source	Students perceiving (N=953)	
	Number	Per cent
Mother	142	14.90
Father	50	5.25
Sister	17	1.78
Brother	17	1.78
Other relative	15	1.57
Friend	23	2.41
Teacher	68	7.14
Other source	26	2.73
Own decision	595	62.43

Interpreted in terms of their own perceptions, the mothers of these students were much more influential in the educational decision than were their fathers. And the combined influence of parents was by far the outstanding source of external influence upon the respondents' decisions. Teachers were the second most influential single source, placing just ahead of fathers. Siblings were perceived as of little influence as were, contrary to the findings of some other studies, members of the peer group.

Race and Source of Influence upon Educational Decision

There was a sharp reversal in the perceived influence of parents on the educational decision as revealed in the response of Negro and white students, Table 22. Mothers were much more frequently seen as sources of influence by Negro students, while the same group perceived their fathers as sources of influence much less frequently than did the white students. In addition, and continuing the pattern of the matriarchal society which the Negro family allegedly represents in the United States, Negro students were much more likely than white students to perceive their sisters as sources of influence. The Negro students also expressed much more dependence upon their teachers in making this decision. The net effect was that Negro students much less frequently than white students considered this decision to have been their own, even though more than half expressed that opinion. The chi-square value was significant beyond the .001 level.

Table 22. Source of Influence upon Educational Decision, Comparison by Race

	Students perceiving			
	White (N=530)		Negro (N=422)	
Source	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Mother	64	12.08	78	18.48
Father	39	7.36	11	2.60
Sister	4	0.75	13	3.08
Brother	10	1.89	7	1.66
Other relative	7	1.32	8	1.90
Friend	13	2.45	11	2.61
Teacher	24	4.53	44	10.43
Other	14	2.64	12	2.84
Own decision	355	66.98	238	56.40

Sex and Source of Influence upon Educational Decision

A somewhat greater proportion of girls than boys perceived their mothers as sources of influence upon their educational decisions, a condition that was reversed with respect to their fathers, Table 23. In each case, the mother was more frequently perceived as an influence than was the father. A strong sex relationship was observed with reference to the influence of brothers and sisters, with males tending to perceive their brothers more frequently as influences and females assigning the same position to their sisters. Females likewise were more prone to perceive a relative as a source of influence than were males, but were less likely to consider their teachers to have exerted a determining influence. It must be remembered that the differences alluded to here are based upon small proportions of total response, for most respondents considered themselves responsible for their educational decisions--females slightly less so than males. The differences in response were not significant.

Table 23. Source of Influence upon Educational Decision, Comparison by Sex

	Students perceiving			
	Male (N=430)		Female (N=523)	
Source	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Mother	60	13.95	82	15.68
Father	24	5.58	26	4.97
Sister	4	0.93	13	2.49
Brother	11	2.56	6	1.15
Relative	4	0.93	11	2.10
Friend	11	2.56	12	2.29
Teacher	35	8.14	33	6.31
Other	10	2.33	16	3.06
Own decision	271	63.02	324	61.95

Intelligence and Source of Influence upon Educational Decision

Respondents of high intelligence differed in perception of the source of influence upon their educational decision from those of low and medium intelligence with reference to several sources, Table 24. They were markedly more prone to perceive both their mothers and their fathers as sources of influence, were considerably less apt to consider the decisions to have been their own and were somewhat more likely to believe a teacher to have influenced them. Response variations were resident within the other intelligence categories also. For example, students of low intelligence were least apt to consider their fathers as sources of influence and most apt to rely on a friend, while students of medium intelligence were least perceptive of a teacher as an influence source and were most represented as considering the decision their own. The differences in response were significant beyond the .01 level.

Table 24. Source of Influence upon Educational Decision, Comparison by Intelligence

	Students perceiving					
	Low IQ (N=300)		Medium IQ (N=395)		High IQ (N=130)	
Source	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Mother	44	14.67	51	12.91	26	20.00
Father	8	2.67	20	5.06	17	13.08
Sister	6	2.00	4	1.01	3	2.31
Brother	6	2.00	7	1.77	2	1.54
Relative	4	1.33	4	1.01	2	1.54
Friend	10	3.33	9	2.28	1	0.77
Teacher	25	8.33	23	5.82	13	10.00
Other	7	2.33	12	3.04	3	2.31
Own decision	190	63.33	265	67.09	63	48.46

Comparison of the various intelligence level category responses one with another gave additional insight into the differences of response observed in the combined table. The response of students of low intelligence was significantly different than that of students of high intelligence, attaining the .01 level. Similarly the response of students of medium intelligence was different than that of students of high intelligence, also at the .01 level. The response of low and medium intelligence students did not result in a significant chi-square when compared. The major cause of the differences in response must be concluded to reside in the perceptions of the students of high intelligence.

Residence and Source of Influence upon Educational Decision

Numerous, and apparently meaningful, differences in response were observed when perceived source of influence upon the educational decision was compared on the basis of residence categories, Table 25. Among them were that town respondents were much more prone to consider their mothers as influential; village residents more frequently reported their fathers as sources of influence; teacher influence was recognized most widely by town residents; and town residents were least apt to consider the decision theirs. When the response is considered jointly, it is obvious that town and village response tended to be more alike, as did nonfarm and farm response, as regards a number of potential sources; among them were mother, sister, brother, teacher, and own decision. A strong rural-urban dichotomy was operative, if one is willing to concede village residency as an indice of urbanity, which appears to have been influential of response. The chi-square value was not significant, but was very near that required for significance at the .05 level.

Table 25. Source of Influence upon Educational Decision, Comparison by Residence

	Students perceiving							
	Town (N=189)		Village (N=150)		Rural nonfarm (N=296)		Farm (N=303)	
Source	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Mother	42	22.22	26	17.33	31	10.47	41	13.53
Father	11	5.82	12	8.00	11	3.72	16	5.28
Sister	5	2.65	3	2.00	5	1.70	4	1.32
Brother	5	2.65	3	2.00	4	1.35	5	1.65
Relative	3	1.59	3	2.00	8	2.70	1	0.33
Friend	2	1.06	3	2.00	8	2.70	9	2.97
Teacher	19	10.05	11	7.33	18	6.08	20	6.60
Other	3	1.59	6	4.00	9	3.04	8	2.64
Own decision	99	52.38	83	55.33	202	68.24	199	65.68

Comparison of the various residence categories with one another bore out the conclusion reached on the basis of observation of response in the combined table. There was a rural-urban dichotomy operative in response obtained. However, it did not extend to comparison of the village residents with those from open country, but was more exclusive, including only comparisons between town residents and those from open country. Response of town residents produced a chi-square significant beyond the .01 level when compared with that of nonfarm rural respondents and a chi-square significant beyond the .05 level when compared to that of farm residents. All other residential comparisons resulted in nonsignificant chi-squares.

Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision

The majority of respondents believed their mothers to be in agreement with the decisions they had made about continuing their education beyond the high school, Table 26. Unlike the respondents' perceptions of their mothers' attitudes toward their occupational decisions, however, there was a strong undercurrent of disagreement together with a small amount of perceived opposition. The single most frequently used category was that of "willing to accept" which, while positive in nature, is a rather weak degree of agreement. If combined with the category of "doesn't care" as a sort of evidence of lack of concern, it results in a condition wherein more than half of the students perceived their mothers' attitudes as something less than in agreement, even though not opposed to the educational decision.

Table 26. Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision

Mother's Attitude	Students perceiving (N=961) Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	350	36.42
Willing to accept	442	45.99
Doesn't care	44	4.58
Disagrees	106	11.03
Opposed	19	1.98

Further analysis of the data concerning mother's attitude toward educational decision was conducted to determine the effects of race, sex, intelligence and residence upon respondent's perception of that attitude. In the chi-square analyses, the categories of perceived maternal response were used as they appear in Table 26, for two reasons: (1) retention of the detailed classification would make the interpretation more meaningful; (2) the number of responses in the categories of disagreement and opposition was sufficiently large as to result in inadequate expected cell numbers infrequently.

Race and Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision

Differences in response between Negro and white students were small, although a slightly larger number of Negro students believed their mothers to be strongly in agreement with their decisions, Table 27. The chi-square value was not significant.

Table 27. Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision, Comparison by Race

	Students perceiving			
	White (N=563)		Negro (N=398)	
Mother's Attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	195	34.64	155	38.94
Willing to accept	268	47.60	174	43.72
Doesn't care	31	5.51	13	3.27
Disagrees	61	10.83	45	11.31
Opposed	8	1.42	11	2.76

Sex and Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision

A greater number of females believed their mothers to be in agreement with their educational decisions than was true for males, Table 28. A lesser percentage of females than males responded in each of the other categories, continuing the initial impression of greater agreement between females and their mothers in regard to their future educational plans. The difference, although suggestive, did not result in a significant chi-square value.

Table 28. Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision, Comparison by Sex

	Students perceiving			
	Male (N=435)		Female (N=526)	
Mother's Attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	143	32.87	207	39.35
Willing to accept	202	46.44	240	45.63
Doesn't care	21	4.83	23	4.37
Disagrees	59	13.56	47	8.94
Opposed	10	2.30	9	1.71

Intelligence and Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision

Basic differences in perception of their mothers' attitudes toward their educational decisions were evident when the respondents were classified by intelligence, Table 29. The per cent of students believing their mothers strongly to agree with their choice increased sharply as the intelligence classification increased. Simultaneously, the per cent of response to the categories of disagreement and opposition decreased through each ascending intelligence classification. The chi-square value was significant beyond the .001 level.

Table 29. Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision, Comparison by Intelligence

	Students perceiving					
	Low IQ (N=295)		Medium IQ (N=410)		High IQ (N=136)	
Mother's Attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	79	26.79	145	35.37	86	63.24
Willing to accept	152	51.52	199	48.54	39	28.68
Doesn't care	13	4.41	17	4.15	5	3.68
Disagrees	43	14.58	42	10.24	6	4.41
Opposed	8	2.71	7	1.71	0	0.00

Comparison of each of the possible two fold intelligence analyses was made to determine the location of the significance in the response differences. As might be expected from examination of Table 29, comparison of the response of low and medium intelligence respondents did not result in a significant chi-square value while that resulting from comparison of both the low and high intelligence respondents and the medium and high intelligence respondents resulted in values significant beyond the .001 level. The response difference may be considered a result of variance in perception of mother's attitude as this was associated with high intelligence.

Residence and Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision

Respondents who resided in town much more frequently believed their mothers to be strongly in agreement with their educational decisions, Table 30. There were other minor differences in response characteristic of respondents from the various residential categories, but it was largely this fact that accounts for a chi-square value significant beyond the .01 level.

Table 30. Mother's Attitude toward Educational Decision, Comparison by Residence

Mother's Attitude	Students perceiving Town (N=183) No.	 Per cent	 Village (N=155) No.	 Per cent	 Rural nonfarm (N=298) No.	 Per cent	 Farm (N=313) No.	 Per cent
Strongly agrees	93	50.82	58	37.42	95	31.88	101	32.27
Willing to accept	60	32.79	74	47.74	147	49.33	155	49.52
Doesn't care	8	4.37	7	4.52	16	5.37	12	3.83
Disagrees	18	9.84	13	8.39	37	12.42	37	11.82
Opposed	4	2.19	3	1.94	3	1.01	8	2.56

Comparison was made of the response using each possible twofold residence classification. Two of these produced results of a significant nature. The response of town students differed from that of rural nonfarm students at the .001 level. The response of town students also was different from that of the farm students, but at the .01 level. No other residence category comparisons produced significant chi-square values.

Father's Attitude toward Educational Decision

The greatest number of respondents, approximately half of the total, believed their fathers to be willing to accept their educational decisions, while the next greatest number, nearly a third, considered that they were in strong agreement with their decisions, Table 31. A substantial minority, slightly more than ten per cent, perceived their fathers either to disagree with or be in opposition to their decisions. Another tenth thought the fathers really didn't care. The consensus would seem to be that the father is receptive to the student's decision.

Table 31. Father's Attitude toward Educational Decision

Father's attitude	Students perceiving (N=897) Number	 Per cent
Strongly agrees	265	29.54
Willing to accept	452	50.39
Doesn't care	87	9.70
Disagrees	74	8.25
Opposed	19	2.12

Race and Father's Attitude toward Educational Decision

There were no major differences in student perception of their fathers' attitudes toward their educational decisions when response was controlled by race, Table 32. White students were somewhat more inclined to perceive their fathers as in disagreement with their decisions, but Negro students were more prone to believe their fathers in opposition to their decisions. Response in the other categories was about equivalent for students regardless of race. The chi-square value was not significant.

Table 32. Father's Attitude toward Educational Decision, Comparison by Race

	Students perceiving			
	White (N=530)		Negro (N=365)	
Father's Attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	159	30.00	106	29.04
Willing to accept	262	49.43	188	51.51
Doesn't care	50	9.43	37	10.14
Disagrees	51	9.62	23	6.30
Opposed	8	1.51	11	3.01

Females were disposed more than males to believe their fathers to be in agreement or willing to accept their educational decisions, Table 33. Consistently, they were considerably less apt to perceive their fathers as in disagreement with their decisions but, inconsistently, they were more apt to believe their fathers to be in opposition. The net effect of all the noted differences in response was a chi-square value significant beyond the .05 level.

Table 33. Father's Attitude toward Educational Decision, Comparison by Sex

	Students perceiving			
	Male (N=411)		Female (N=486)	
Father's Attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	116	28.22	149	30.66
Willing to accept	196	47.69	256	52.67
Doesn't care	46	11.19	41	8.44
Disagrees	45	10.95	29	5.97
Opposed	8	1.95	11	2.26

Intelligence and Father's Attitude toward Educational Decision

There was a uniform, positive correlation between intelligence classification of the student and his perception of his father's attitude as strongly supporting his educational decision, Table 34. At the same time, there was negative correlation, equally uniform between his intelligence and his perception of opposition from his father. Other differences in response from students in the intelligence classifications were also noted, most impressive of which was the fact that more than half of the highly intelligent perceived strong support from their fathers, coupled with a declining per cent of response in each subsequent, and less favorably disposed, response category. The chi-square value of the difference was significant beyond the .001 level.

Table 34. Father's Attitude toward Educational Decision, Comparison by Intelligence

	Students Perceiving					
	Low IQ (N=269)		Medium IQ (N=379)		High IQ (N=133)	
Father's Attitude	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Strongly agrees	51	18.96	104	27.44	76	57.14
Willing to accept	158	58.74	203	53.56	37	27.82
Doesn't care	30	11.15	31	8.18	11	8.27
Disagrees	22	8.18	35	9.23	8	6.02
Opposed	8	2.97	6	1.58	1	0.75

Comparison of response by intelligence classification was conducted, using the possible twofold comparisons. Those between students of high intelligence and those of low intelligence and medium intelligence were in each instance significant beyond the .001 level. That between students of low and medium intelligence approached but did not attain significance. It is evident that the single greatest difference in response by intelligence was the propensity of highly intelligent students to perceive more support and less opposition from their fathers relevant to their educational decision.

Residence and Father's Attitude toward Educational Decision

The impression to be gathered about the effects of residence upon perception of father's attitude toward educational decision is that differences are dichotomized on a rural-urban base, Table 35. There are differences of response to be observed between town and village respondents, as well as between rural nonfarm and farm respondents, but the differences are greater between these two sets than within them. It is noticeable that the urban oriented (it may be a misnomer to consider the village residents urban, for the residence category would not always meet the census definition of urban; but their attitudes patently are more consistent with those of town than open country respondents in this study) were more likely to believe their fathers to be in agreement with their choices, although not as frequently responding with the belief that their fathers were accepting their decisions. Differences in response resulted in a chi-square value significant beyond the .05 level.

Table 35. Father's Attitude toward Educational Decision, Comparison by Residence

	Students perceiving							
	Town (N=165)		Village (N=137)		Rural nonfarm (N=283)		Farm (N=303)	
Father's Attitude	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agrees	61	36.97	55	40.15	74	26.15	73	24.09
Willing to accept	74	44.85	57	41.61	152	53.71	164	54.12
Doesn't care	16	9.70	12	8.76	24	8.48	34	11.22
Disagrees	9	5.45	11	8.03	29	10.25	24	7.92
Opposed	5	3.03	2	1.46	4	1.41	8	2.64

Comparison of the response on the basis of twofold residence classification resulted in the expected. Response difference of town and village students was not significant. Response difference of rural nonfarm and farm students was not significant. Response differences for the remaining comparisons provided the following results: town and rural nonfarm respondents, significant beyond the .05 level; town and farm respondents, significant beyond the .05 level; village and rural nonfarm residents, not significant although very nearly so; village and farm residents, significant beyond the .02 level.

Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision

Respondents were requested to indicate the extent to which they believed their high school education had contributed to their decision of whether to pursue advanced education. Just about half indicated that it had had a great deal of influence while about another third believed it to have been of some influence, Table 36. About one-fifth of the respondents believed that their education to date had played little or no function in their decisions concerning additional education.

Table 36. Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision

Influence	Students perceiving (N=1,008)	
	Number	Per cent
Great deal	508	50.40
Some	303	30.06
Little	103	10.22
None	94	9.33

The relationships of race, sex, intelligence and residence to perceived influence of high school upon the educational decision were investigated. The findings are presented in the following sections.

Race and the Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision

Many more Negro students believed their high school education to have had a great deal of influence upon their educational decisions than did white students, Table 37. Similarly, fewer Negro students believed their high school experiences to have been of little or no influence. The differences in responses resulted in a chi-square value significant beyond the .001 level.

Table 37. Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision, Comparison by Race

	Students perceiving			
	White (N=574)		Negro (N=432)	
Influence	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Great deal	248	43.21	259	59.95
Some	180	31.36	122	28.24
Little	76	13.24	27	6.25
None	70	12.20	24	5.56

Sex and the Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision

Males and females responded in essentially the same way to the question of the influence their high school educations had upon their educational decisions, Table 38. About half of each group believed it to have been of great influence. Responses in each of the remaining categories varied but little, the greatest difference residing in the category of no influence which surprisingly was populated more intensely by females, and the chi-square value was not significant.

Table 38. Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision, Comparison by Sex

	Students perceiving			
	Male (N=465)		Female (N=543)	
Influence	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Great deal	240	51.61	268	49.36
Some	140	30.11	163	30.02
Little	48	10.32	55	10.13
None	37	7.96	57	10.50

Intelligence and the Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision

Students of high intelligence were considerably more apt to perceive their high school educations as having been influential of their decisions concerning continued education than were students of low or medium intelligence, Table 39. Other variations in response were rather random, with the exception of that indicating little effect of high school which bore a negative correlation to intelligence classification. The chi-square value of the differences was not significant, although nearly so.

Table 39. Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision, Comparison by Intelligence

	Students perceiving					
	Low IQ (N=319)		Medium IQ (N=421)		High IQ (N=137)	
Influence	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Great deal	158	49.53	194	46.08	81	59.12
Some	98	30.72	134	31.83	32	23.36
Little	41	12.85	44	10.45	13	9.49
None	22	6.90	49	11.64	11	8.03

Comparison of the various twofold intelligence classifications did not produce a significant chi-square value.

Residence and the Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision

Town and village residents expressed about an equal proportion of belief that their high school educationshad been of great influence in their educational decisions, in distinction to rural nonfarm and farm residents who also expressed about an equal proportion of conviction that it had been of great influence but at a level of proportion much less than that of town and village residents, Table 40. Similar dichotomization of the response on a residence basis could be discerned in the response categories of little and no influence, with rural residents tending to express belief in greater per cents of the lack of influence of their high school educations. The observed differences resulted in a chi-square value significant beyond the .001 level.

Table 40. Influence of High School Education upon Educational Decision, Comparison by Residence

	Students perceiving							
	Town (N=197)		Village (N=161)		Rural nonfarm (N=306)		Farm (N=328)	
Influence	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Great deal	116	58.88	91	56.52	142	46.41	154	46.95
Some	57	28.93	47	29.19	78	25.49	113	34.45
Little	15	7.61	14	8.70	42	13.73	31	9.45
None	9	4.57	9	5.59	44	14.38	30	9.15

Comparison of the twofold classifications of residence resulted in the following chi-square values: town and village residents, not significant; town and rural nonfarm residents, significant beyond the .001 level; town and farm residents, significant beyond the .05 level; village and rural nonfarm residents, significant beyond the .01 level; village and farm residents, not significant; rural nonfarm and farm residents, significant beyond the .02 level.

Conclusions

The monumental self-assurance of these adolescents, two-thirds of whom believed themselves responsible for their decisions regarding the pursuit of further education, is consistent with the emphasis currently placed upon youth in our culture. In broadest interpretation, it can be considered a positive aspect of the culture, presaging a generation which will make its vital decisions fearlessly and with confidence in its ability to do so competently. From a less optimistic point of view, this behavior may be a consequence of disenchantment with the older generation, commonly believed to characterize the younger generation of today, resulting in a disinclination to defer to the judgment of adults. If this were the case, a consequence could be engagement in disadvantageous decisions deriving from divorcement from the accumulation of folk wisdom allegedly inherent in adults as a distillation of their life experiences.

That the inclination of the respondents to be self-dependent with regard to their educational decisions is not necessarily a consequence of alienation from the adult world is indicated by their failure to cite a friend as a source of influence upon their decisions. In the context of the youth culture it would be consistent to interpret the category of friend as a member of the peer group. And a limited proportion of the sample denoted a friend as having been determinative of their decisions.

On the contrary, the mother of the respondent was the most frequently mentioned external influence upon the educational decision. She was noted twice as frequently as a teacher, the next most frequently mentioned source, and almost three times as often as the father of the respondent.

To the extent that adolescents turn to external sources as bases for their educational decisions, the parents were by far most influential. No other sources, singly or in combination, i.e., siblings, were in any way comparable to the perceived influence of parents.

The matriarchal structure of the Negro family was illustrated by the tendency of Negro students to consider their mothers much more frequently as sources of influence than were their fathers. While the same condition existed for the white students,it was magnified for the Negro students. The matriarchy may have its continuation in the Negro family in the existence of a sororate. Negro students gave their sisters as sources of influence more frequently than did the white students, as well as almost twice as often as they cited their brothers. The dependency of the Negro upon the school, perhaps as representative of wisdom and worldly knowledge, is reflected in the fact that more than twice as many Negro as white students believed a teacher to have influenced their educational decisions. Likewise, the humility, or perhaps realistic appraisal of self-knowledge of the Negro student, is indicated by his lesser tendency to belive the decision to have been his own.

Sex differences in response were limited in respect to the extent to which respondents turned to either father or mother as a source of influence. They were unanimous in turning to their mothers more frequently. And the sex factor was present in that differences in perceived influence of father and mother were directly sex-correlated. But the differences themselves were quite small. The sex-correlation was more strongly evident in the extent of influence noted as deriving from brothers and sisters. While the amount of response in these categories was small, females cited a sister twice as often as a brother and males cited a brother twice as often as a sister. Males slightly more often than females noted a teacher as a source of influence. While the difference was so slight as perhaps to be meaningless, it could be concluded that the significance of the male's occupational choice, together with the greater occupational diversity open to him, made him more dependent upon a knowledgeable and objective source of information and guidance.

The more intelligent students were much less apt to consider the educational decision their own than were students of lesser intelligence. As sources of external influence they turned to teachers, mothers and fathers more frequently than did students from other intelligence categories. The extent to which students of high intelligence turned to their fathers as a source of influence upon this decision is particularly notable. At first glance, this condition seems to contain the seeds of catastrophe for the students of lesser intelligence. Cast upon their own devices they would seem bound inevitably to make poor choices. Relative to their failure to consult teachers (which they do more than do students of medium intelligence) this conclusion may be accurate. However, given the known social class and intelligence association, it may be that the reluctance of these students to depend upon their parents, particularly their fathers, is quite realistic. The greater worldly sophistication which one might propose for these students, now seniors in high school, may make them better directors of their educational fates than would be their parents.

The rural nonfarm student was most inclined of the residence categories to consider his educational decision his own, closely followed by farm students. Town and village students were much less apt to hold this belief, with town students least apt to take the position, noting themselves as the decision source considerably less often than the open country students.

Town and village students were more prone to consider their parents, singly and in combination, as influences upon the decision than were open country students. One might infer that the rural student perceived his parents as less in tune with the world, less able accurately to judge his educational needs, than he himself was. And the urban student may be considered to judge his parents, because of their greater interaction with a more varied environment, more knowledgeable about the educational needs associated with successful competition in the current culture. To make this assumption, one must posit a degree of sophistication and understanding of the culture for the student himself: a condition which he conceivably could have achieved as a consequence of his exposure to a progressively better and more comprehensive educational institution. Unfortunately, the tendency of the rural student to observe the teacher as a source of influence less frequently than did the urban student does not support this point of view.

The attitude of the respondent's mother toward his educational decision basically was seen as favorable. More than a third of the respondents believed their mothers to be strongly in agreement. Slightly less than half considered their mothers to be willing to accept their decisions. On the other side of the ledger, more than a tenth believed their mothers to be in disagreement with their decisions and two per cent considered this disagreement to constitute opposition. The consistency with which about one-third of the sample considered parents to strongly agree with their decisions, whether concerning occupation or education, allows presumption of a basic lack of rapport, and probably communication, between children and parents in a substantial number of homes.

Negro students perceived their mothers strongly in agreement with their decisions more often than did white students, but the difference was not so great as one might have imagined. Of course, it must be remembered that the existence of the matriarchy does not presuppose harmony of thought between mother and child. Response of Negro and white students regarding mother's opinion was very similar.

This condition did not exist for the male-female comparison. Females were much more prone to consider their mothers as strongly in agreement with their decisions and males to believe their mothers were in disagreement. The sex-correlation, with its concomitant probable identification and rapport factors, appears to have been operative.

There was a continuous accretion in the per cent of students who perceived a strongly supportive mother's attitude toward their educational decision across the increasing intelligence categories. The distinction between each category was marked, with almost two-thirds of the high intelligence classification relating their mothers as strongly in agreement. Very few of the highly intelligent students perceived their mothers as in disagreement and none of them thought they were opposed to their decisions. This was in sharp distinction to the students of low intelligence. Given the culture-bound aspect of intelligence and the upward mobility ethic, it is quite possible that the highly intelligent student, most probably aiming toward a college degree, was acting in accord with his mother's expectations. But the opposite point of view would have to be that the student of low intelligence, not aspiring to college, was violating his mother's desire that he attend. Or alternatively, that by aspiring to attend, he was violating his mother's belief that he should immediately engage in the occupational structure. The latter explanation is more defensible in light of the expressed desire of most of this sample, shown elsewhere, to attend college.

Town and village students were more prone to consider their mothers strongly in agreement with their educational decisions than were rural nonfarm and farm students. The difference was considerably greater for the town students. Rural students, on the other hand, were more frequently of the opinion that their mothers were in disagreement with their decisions than were town and village students, with the extent of difference greatest for the latter. This finding continues the evidence of this study that the town family is more solidly in agreement upon the goals of its youthful members, and in the influence exerted by the adults, than is the rural family. This inversion of the commonly accepted view of the urban family as disorganized, disparate, and devoted to special interests cannot pass without note.

Respondents in the study did not perceive their fathers as frequently in agreement with their educational decisions as they had their mothers. Still, the figure hovered close to the one-third mark characteristic of all responses. Similarly, not quite so many believed their fathers to be in disagreement as had perceived this attitude on the part of their mothers. The difference is made up in the fact that the father was more frequently seen as apathetic. This condition is consistent with the belief that the father in today's society has exchanged some of the interaction and guidance effect previously exerted upon his family for success in a depersonalized and external-to-the-home occupational structure.

Negro and white students basically were in agreement with regard to their fathers' attitude toward their educational decisions. The Negro student perceived his father somewhat more often apathetic and somewhat less often in disagreement. The similarities were more striking than the differences. One could conclude that the alienation from father presumed as a concomitant of the matriarchal Negro family structure has its counterpart in the depersonalization of the white father resulting from his success-oriented occupational involvement.

A reversal of the sex-correlated trends previously noted occurred in comparison of the extent to which males and females perceived their fathers to be in agreement with their educational decisions. Females were somewhat more apt to consider their fathers as strongly in agreement. At the same time they were much less likely to believe him to disagree. This difference is difficult to understand. If one were able to consider what the respondent's decision had been, some light might be thrown on this relationship.

The higher the intelligence classification of the student the more likely he was to perceive his father as in strong agreement with his educational decision. The opposite is not quite true, although students of both low and medium intelligence considered their fathers more frequently in disagreement with their decisions than did students of high intelligence.

The previously cited relation between social class and intelligence probably is a factor.

Here too, as in previous similar comparisons, the student from town and village considered his father as more frequently in agreement than did the student from the open country. The relationship was not as distinct with reference to perceived disagreement on the part of the father where the differences were as much within as between the rural-urban categories.

A bare majority of students considered their high school education to have had a great deal of influence upon their educational decisions, while nearly a fifth thought it had had little or no effect. Considering the surface similarities between the two functions and that additional education would to some extent be a continuation of high school, the former figure seems low and the latter high.

Negro students considered the high school to have been of great influence upon their educational decisions much more often than did white students. They likewise were not so prone to believe it to have had the opposite effect. More than a fourth of white students considered their high school experience to have had little or no effect upon their decisions. This discrepancy seems once more to point out the reliance of the Negro upon the school as a source of unbiased and factual information, a condition in turn probably growing out of the lack of experience resident in the home.

Males were slightly more prone than females to believe high school had been of much effect upon their educational decisions and slightly less apt to consider it as of no influence. However, the differences were so slight, and response to the other categories so similar, as to lead to the conclusion that the sexes responded to this question in the same way.

The student of higher intelligence was willing to commit himself in greater numbers to the proposition that his high school education had greatly influenced his educational decision. The relationship between this belief and education was directly correlated in a positive fashion. The conclusion must be that the high school experience was more meaningful for the intelligent student and, similarly, more consistent with his life goals.

The high school experience likewise was perceived more frequently as contributive to his educational decision by the urban rather than the rural respondent. The reverse is true with regard to belief in the inefficacy of the school in influencing that decision. The urban school apparently is more attuned to the educational aspirations of its students, is able because of its better facilities to make more of an impression upon its students, or is in some way more capable of transmitting an educational ethic to its students. The latter is not necessarily consistent as a rationale, while at the same time being of a different nature than the first two suppositions. For we cannot assume that the rural student's decision has been not to attend college.